

'Any' and 'There'

Gary Hardegree

Department of Philosophy
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, MA 01003

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1. Introduction

So far, we have considered only three quantifiers – the standard logical triad – 'every', 'some', and 'no'. In the present chapter, we examine 'any', and we also examine 'there' insertion.

2. Distributional Oddities of 'Any'

The word 'any' in English is very versatile, and also very subtle. It is a quantifier very similar in meaning to 'every', but with some very important differences. For example, the following are *largely* equivalent.

every number that two divides is even
any number that two divides is even

On the other hand, consider the following, which seem to be parallel.

every pet is in the house
 ? **any** pet is in the house

Whereas the first one is well-formed, the second one sounds odd, perhaps even ill-formed.

To further see that 'every' and 'any' are not interchangeable, consider the following pair.

does **everyone** have a question?
 does **anyone** have a question?

These clearly ask different questions. Also, if we examine the parallel assertoric forms

everyone has a question
 ? **anyone** has a question

we see just how different 'every' is from 'any'. The first answer is well-formed; the second is ill-formed, or at least odd.

Also consider the following sentences.

Jay doesn't respect **everyone**
 Jay doesn't respect **anyone**

These clearly are not equivalent, and once again the assertoric forms further underscore the difference.

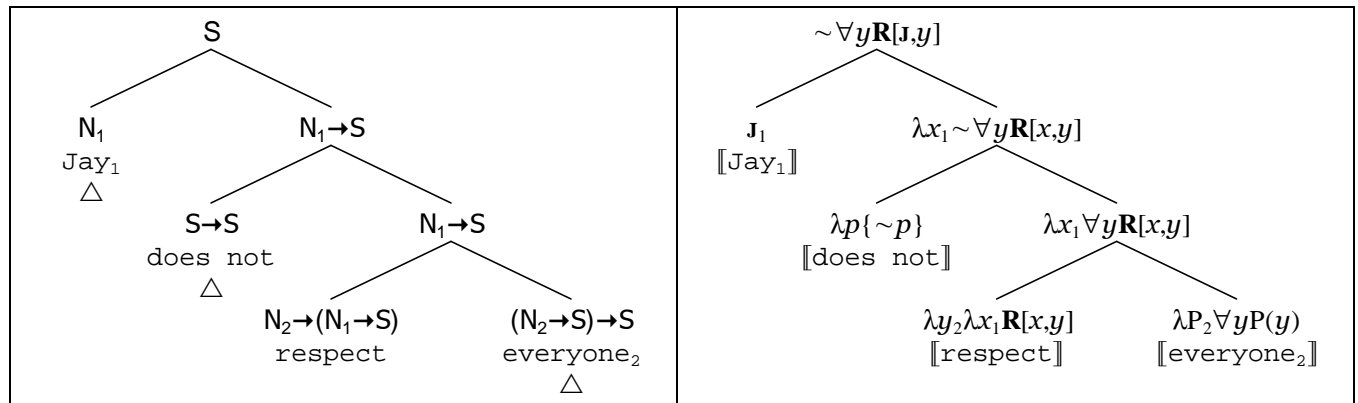
Jay respects **everyone**
 ? Jay respects **anyone**

3. The More or Less Standard Approach to 'Any'

A fairly straightforward approach to 'any' proposes that it is used in place of 'every' to explicitly mark the QP as having *wide-scope* with respect to an *affiliated operator*¹ [for example 'not'] which otherwise *appears* to have wider scope than the QP. In particular, according to this approach, in order to push the scope of 'every' past its affiliated operator, we pronounce it "any".

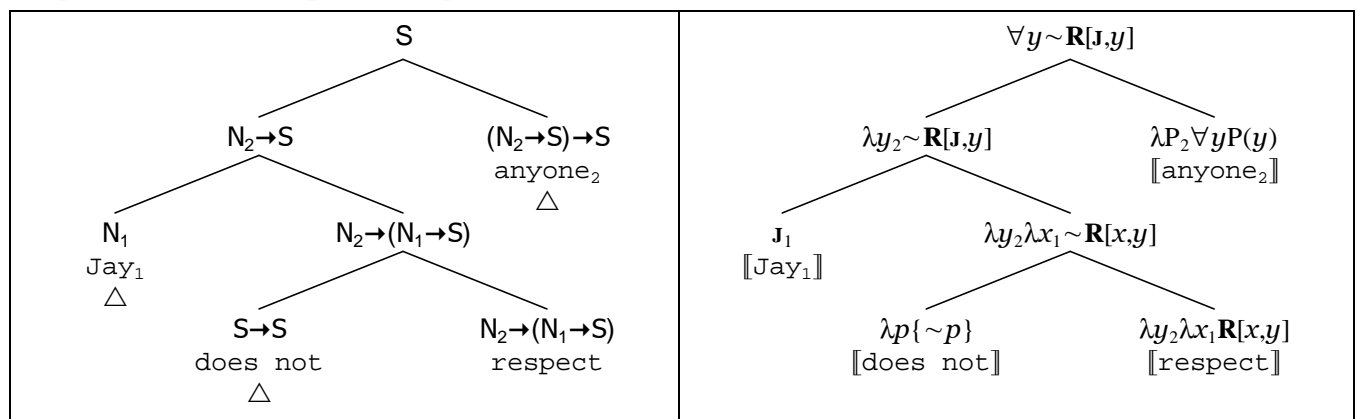
How this is accomplished grammatically may be seen in the following analyses.

Jay doesn't respect everyone



Notice that 'does not' is an aunt of 'everyone' and accordingly has wider scope. We later consider how the auxiliary verb 'does' works in 'does not'; for the moment, suffice it to say that it is semantically-empty.

Jay doesn't respect anyone

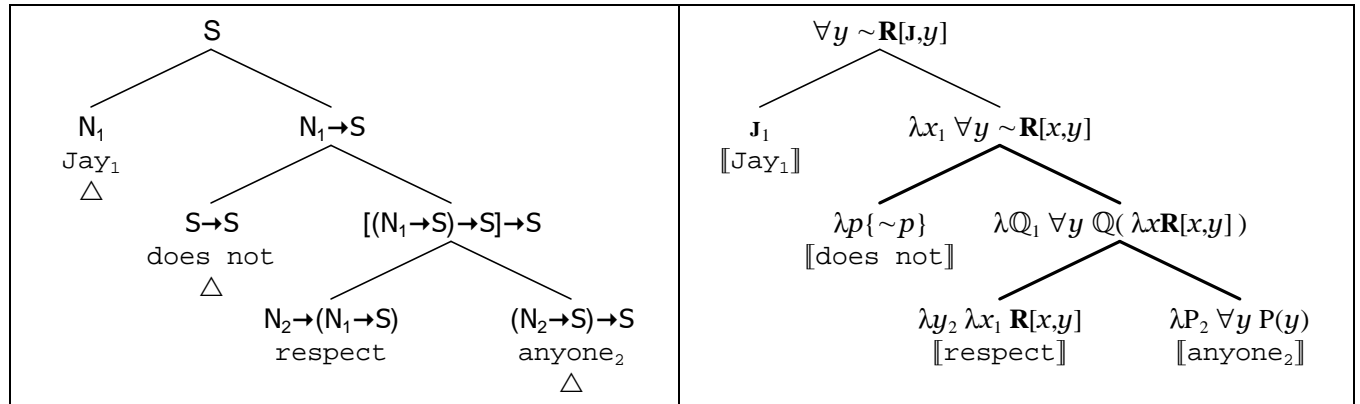


In this analysis 'anyone' is a great-aunt of 'does not', and accordingly has wider scope.

Notice that this analysis employs the usual syntactic account of scope, according to which the wide-scope phrase assumes a higher position in the tree. We can also raise the quantifier using purely semantic techniques, as seen in the following analysis.

¹ The affiliate is traditionally called a "negative polarity", but this is not an entirely felicitous term, since the admissible affiliates include 'not' and 'no', but also 'if', as well as numerous non-extensional operators, and the question-formation operator. Other words in English that require an affiliated "negative" operator include 'ever', some uses of which may be regarded as the *temporal* version of 'any', and 'either', some uses of which may be regarded as the *dual* version of 'any'.

Jay doesn't respect anyone



The following derivations underwrite the key compositions.

(1)	$\text{N}_2 \rightarrow (\text{N}_1 \rightarrow \text{S})$	1	Pr	$\lambda y_2 \lambda x_1 \mathbf{R}[x,y]$	
(2)	$(\text{N}_2 \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \text{S}$	2	Pr	$\lambda P_2 \forall y P(y)$	
(3)	$(\text{N}_1 \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \text{S}$	3	As	Q_1	$\lambda P_1 Q(P)$
(4)	$\text{N}_2 \rightarrow \text{S}$	13	1,3,TR	$\lambda y_2 Q_1(\lambda x_1 \mathbf{R}[x,y])$	$\lambda y_2 Q(\lambda x \mathbf{R}[x,y])$
(5)	S	123	2,4, \rightarrow O	$\forall y Q(\lambda x \mathbf{R}[x,y])$	
(6)	$[(\text{N}_1 \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \text{S}] \rightarrow \text{S}$	12	3-5, \rightarrow I	$\lambda Q_1 \forall y Q(\lambda x \mathbf{R}[x,y])$	

(1)	$[(\text{N}_1 \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \text{S}] \rightarrow \text{S}$	1	Pr	$\lambda Q_1 \forall y Q(\lambda x \mathbf{R}[x,y])$	
(2)	S \rightarrow S	2	Pr	$\lambda p \{ \sim p \}$	
(3)	N ₁	3	As	x_1	
(4)	N ₁ \rightarrow S	4	As	P_1	$\lambda x_1 P(x)$
(5)	S	34	3,4, \rightarrow O	$P_1(x_1)$	$P(x)$
(6)	S	234	2,5, \rightarrow O	$\sim P(x)$	
(7)	$(\text{N}_1 \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \text{S}$	23	4-6, \rightarrow I	$\lambda P_1 \sim P(x)$	
(8)	S	123	1,7, \rightarrow O	$\forall y \sim \mathbf{R}[x,y]$	
(9)	N ₁ \rightarrow S	12	3-8, \rightarrow I	$\lambda x_1 \forall y \sim \mathbf{R}[x,y]$	

4. Our Proposal

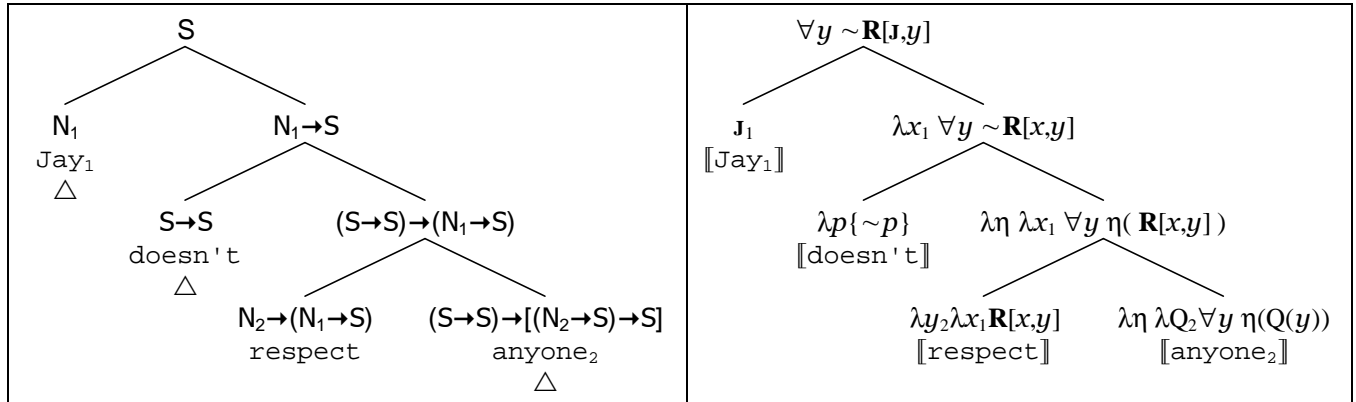
We propose an alternative analysis of 'any', according to which it is categorially, and hence lexically, different from 'every'. In particular, we propose to treat the affiliated S-operator as a required argument, so that a sentence like 'Jay respects anyone' is odd-sounding, not in virtue of being nonsense, but in virtue of being *incomplete*. Our analysis is as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{type}(\text{any}) &= \text{CNP} \rightarrow [(\text{S} \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \text{QP}] \\
 &= (\text{N}_0 \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \{ (\text{S} \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow [(\text{N} \rightarrow \text{S}) \rightarrow \text{S}] \} \\
 [[\text{any}]] &= \lambda P_0 \lambda \eta \lambda Q \forall x \{ P(x) \rightarrow \eta(Q(x)) \}
 \end{aligned}$$

In other words, 'any' takes a CNP and delivers, not a QP, but rather a function that takes an S-operator [sentential-adverb] η and delivers a (universal) QP that incorporates η .

Let's see how this works with a simple example.

Jay doesn't respect anyone



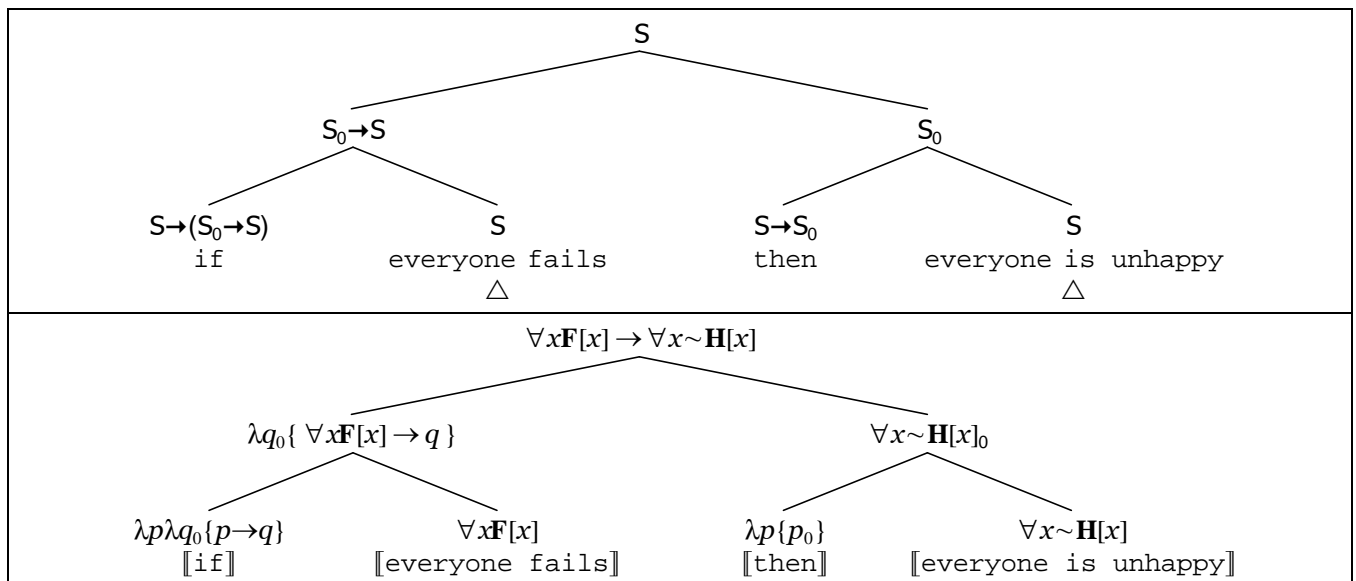
5. If-Any

Another admissible affiliate for 'any' is 'if', as seen in the following opposed-pair of sentences.

if **everyone** fails, then everyone is unhappy
 if **anyone** fails, then everyone is unhappy

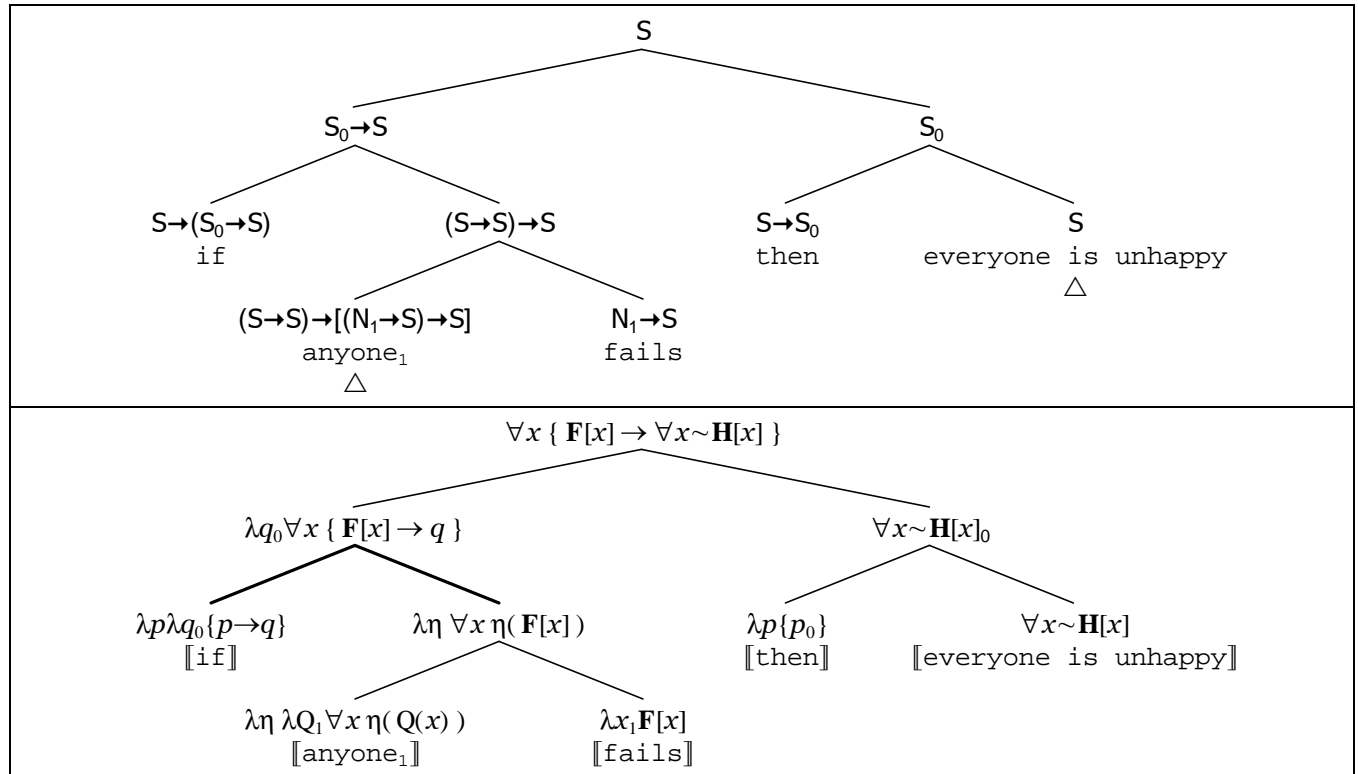
The following is the analysis of the former. Notice that we treat 'then' as a sentence-inflector, the pronunciation of which is optional, and which serves to distinguish the consequent of the conditional from the antecedent.

if **everyone** fails, then everyone is unhappy



On the other hand, the following is the analysis of the corresponding 'any' sentence.

if **anyone** fails, then everyone is unhappy



The highlighted computation is underwritten by the following derivation.

(1)	$S \rightarrow (S_0 \rightarrow S)$	1	Pr	$\lambda p \lambda q_0 \{ p \rightarrow q \}$
(2)	$(S \rightarrow S) \rightarrow S$	2	Pr	$\lambda \eta \forall x \eta(F[x])$
(3)	S_0	3	As	q_0
(4)	S	4	As	p
(5)	$S_0 \rightarrow S$	13	1,3, $\rightarrow O$	$\lambda q_0 \{ p \rightarrow q \}$
(6)	S	134	4,5, $\rightarrow O$	$p \rightarrow q$
(7)	$S \rightarrow S$	13	4-6, $\rightarrow I$	$\lambda p \{ p \rightarrow q \}$
(8)	S	123	2,7, $\rightarrow O$	$\forall x \{ F[x] \rightarrow q \}$
(9)	$S_0 \rightarrow S$	12	3-8, $\rightarrow I$	$\lambda q_0 \forall x \{ F[x] \rightarrow q \}$

6. No-Any

Yet another affiliate of 'any' is 'no'.² Consider the following sentence, which is the simplest example that combines 'no' and 'any'.

no one respects **anyone**

which is different in content from the corresponding no-every sentence.

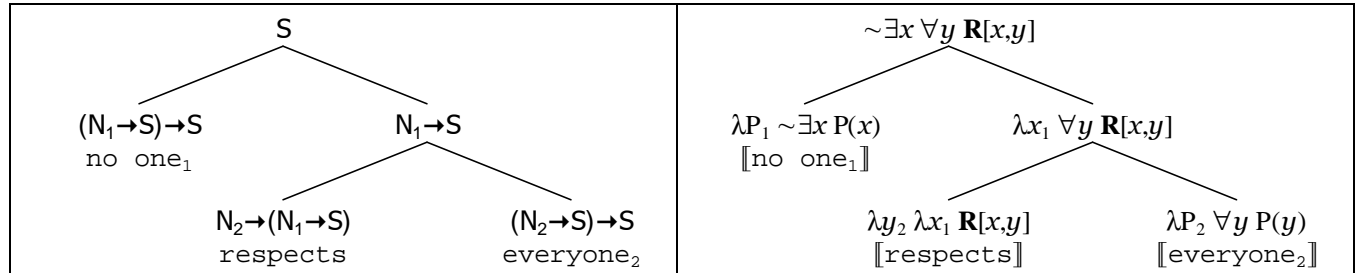
no one respects **everyone**

² The remaining affiliates of 'any' are non-extensional operators, including the question-forming operator.

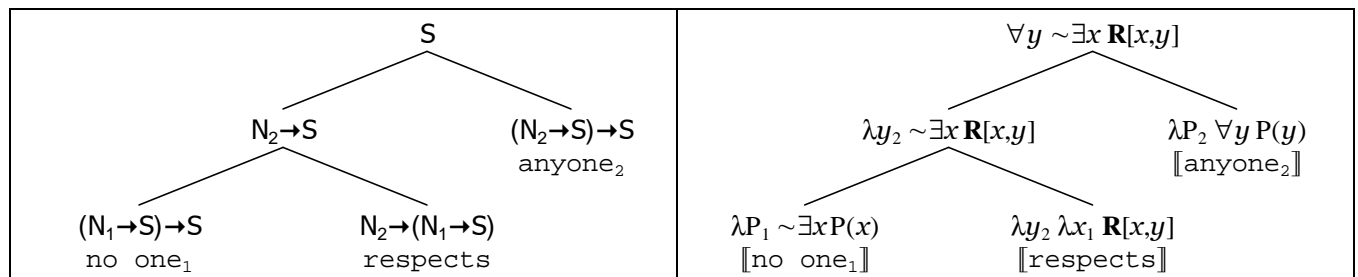
7. The Conventional Approach to 'no...any'

If we analyze the above sentences using standard scope-techniques, we obtain the following analyses.

no one respects everyone



no one respects anyone



This account of the scope of 'anyone' works on this example, but it is ultimately not entirely satisfactory, since in particular it cannot handle a sentence such as the following.

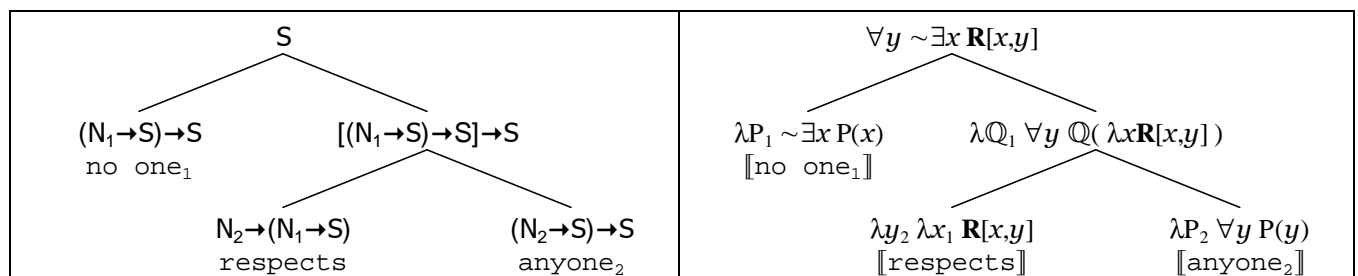
no woman respects any man who does not respect **her**

The problem is that the pronoun 'her' is contained in the 'any'-QP, and bound by 'no woman', so if we syntactically raise the 'any'-QP, then 'her' falls outside the scope of 'no woman'.³

8. Semantic QP-Raising

We can also maintain the surface syntactic SVO form, and semantically raise 'anyone' as follows.

no one respects anyone

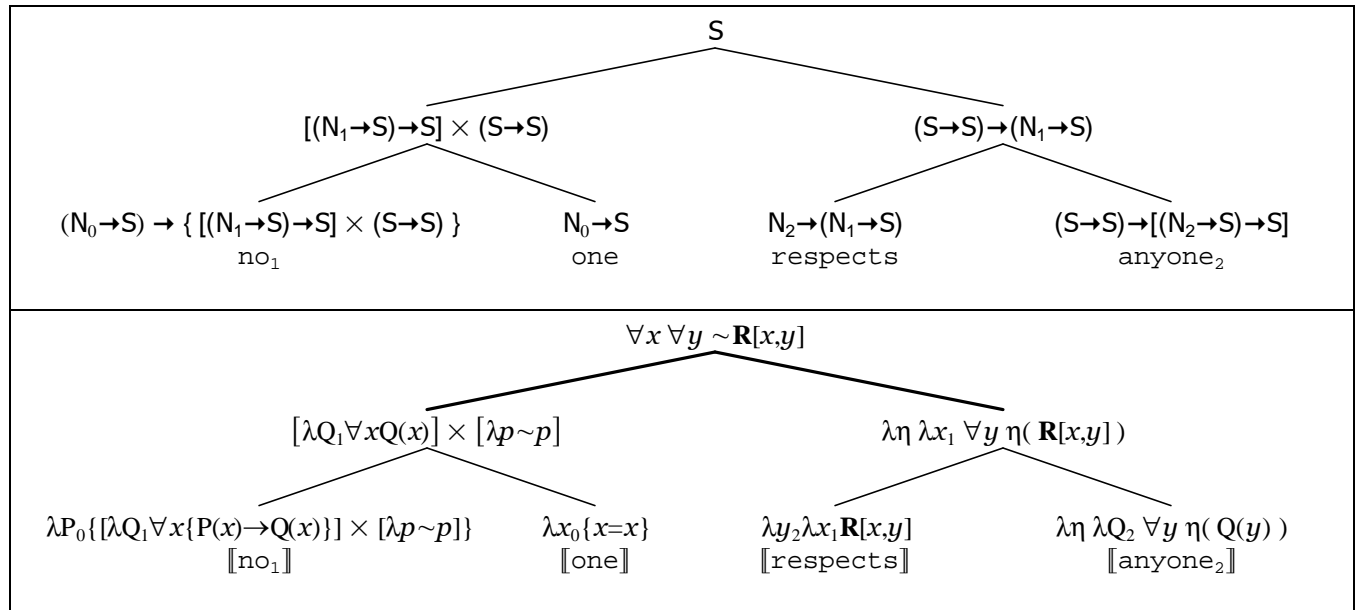


Unfortunately, this approach also faces the above problem of dangling anaphora.

³ We take up the issue of anaphoric pronouns in a later chapter.

On the other hand, there are occasions when the negative sub-module remains autonomous, and supplies the requisite affiliate-operator for 'any', as illustrated in the following tree.

no one respects **anyone**



The highlighted composition is underwritten by the following derivation.

(1)	$[(N_1 \rightarrow S) \rightarrow S] \times (S \rightarrow S)$	12	Pr	$\lambda Q_1 \forall x Q(x) \times \lambda p \sim p$
(2)	$(S \rightarrow S) \rightarrow (N_1 \rightarrow S)$	3	Pr	$\lambda \eta \lambda x_1 \forall y \eta(R[x,y])$
(3)	$(N_1 \rightarrow S) \rightarrow S$	1	$1, \times O_1$	$\lambda Q_1 \forall x Q(x)$
(4)	$S \rightarrow S$	2	$1, \times O_2$	$\lambda p \sim p$
(5)	$N_1 \rightarrow S$	23	$2, 4, \rightarrow O$	$\lambda x_1 \forall y \sim R[x,y]$
(6)	S	123	$3, 5, \rightarrow O$	$\forall x \forall y \sim R[x,y]$

We also note that this analysis has no problem with the earlier trouble-maker,

no woman respects any man who does not respect **her**

This is because, according to the new analysis, 'no woman' keeps the pronoun 'her' inside its scope. This is taken up in more detail in a later chapter, after we have an account of anaphoric pronouns.

11. Multiple Instances of 'Any'

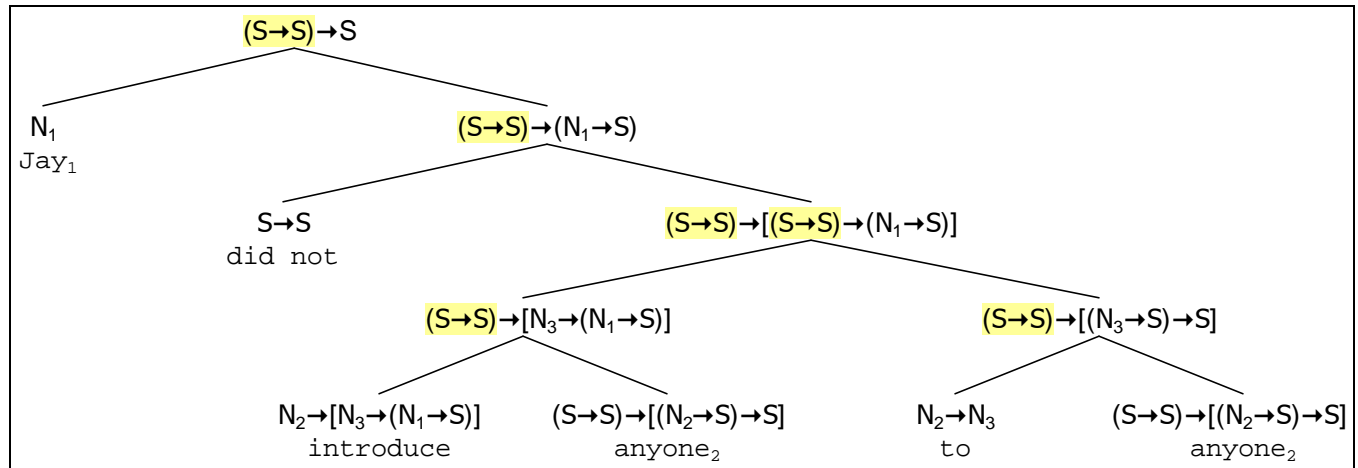
A given clause can contain multiple occurrences of 'any', as in the following examples.

- (1) Jay did not sell **any** car to **any** shopper **any** time last month;
- (2) if **any** salesperson sold **any** car to **any** shopper **any** time last month, then he/she will get a bonus;
- (3) no salesperson sold **any** car to **any** shopper **any** time last month;

These pose an immediate problem for our analysis as it stands, as seen when we analyze the following simplified version of (1).

(1') Jay did not introduce anyone to anyone

The problem is that the first occurrence of 'any' absorbs the affiliate-operator 'not', which leaves no affiliate-operator for the second occurrence of 'any' to act upon. This is spelled out in the following syntactic tree. Notice the highlighted occurrences of 'S→S'.



In order to solve this problem, we appeal once more to semantic-decomposition. This time we decompose the QP 'any P' into two components:

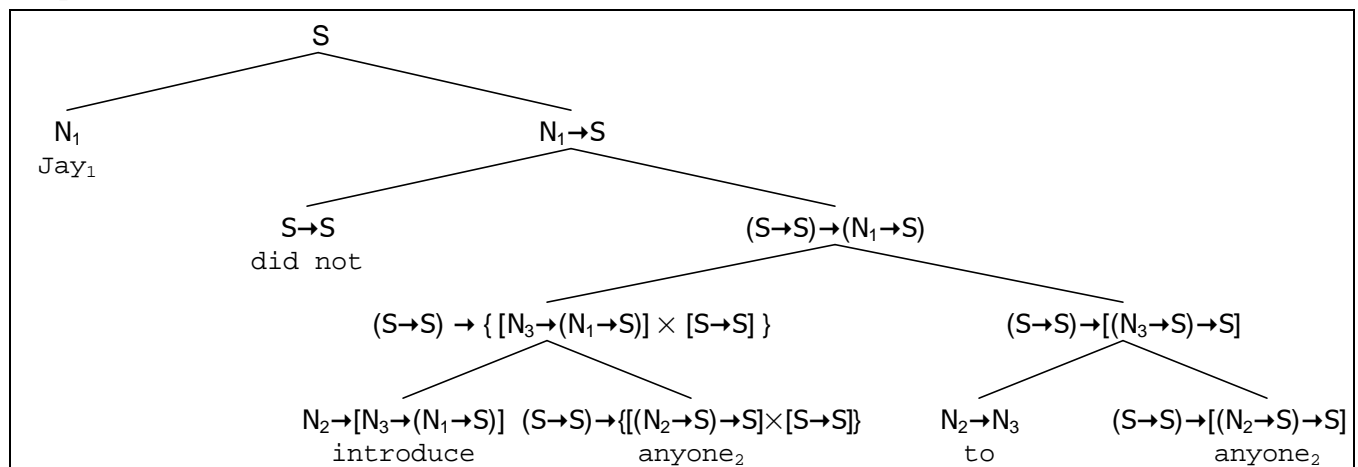
- (1) universal component
- (2) (affiliate) S-operator component

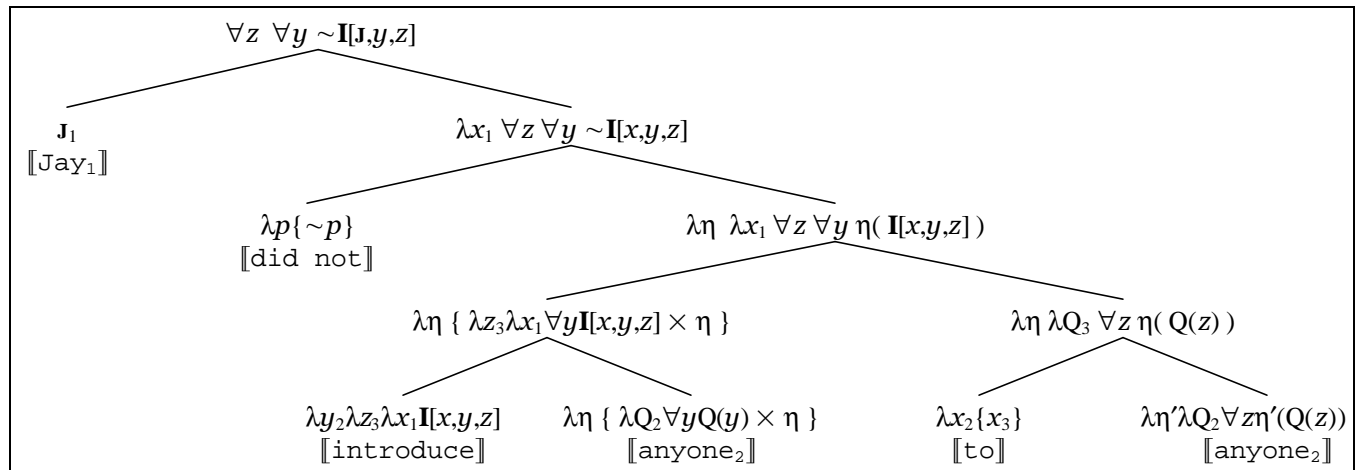
This is categorially implemented as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{type(any)} &= (N_0 \rightarrow S) \rightarrow [(S \rightarrow S) \rightarrow \{ [(N \rightarrow S) \rightarrow S] \times (S \rightarrow S) \}] \\
 [[\text{any}]] &= \lambda P_0 \quad \lambda \eta \quad [\lambda Q \forall x \{ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x) \} \times \eta] \\
 &\hspace{15em} \text{universal} \hspace{15em} \text{S-operator}
 \end{aligned}$$

As with 'no', if the component S-operator η is not further needed, it combines with the component QP as before. With this reanalysis of 'any', we obtain the following trees.

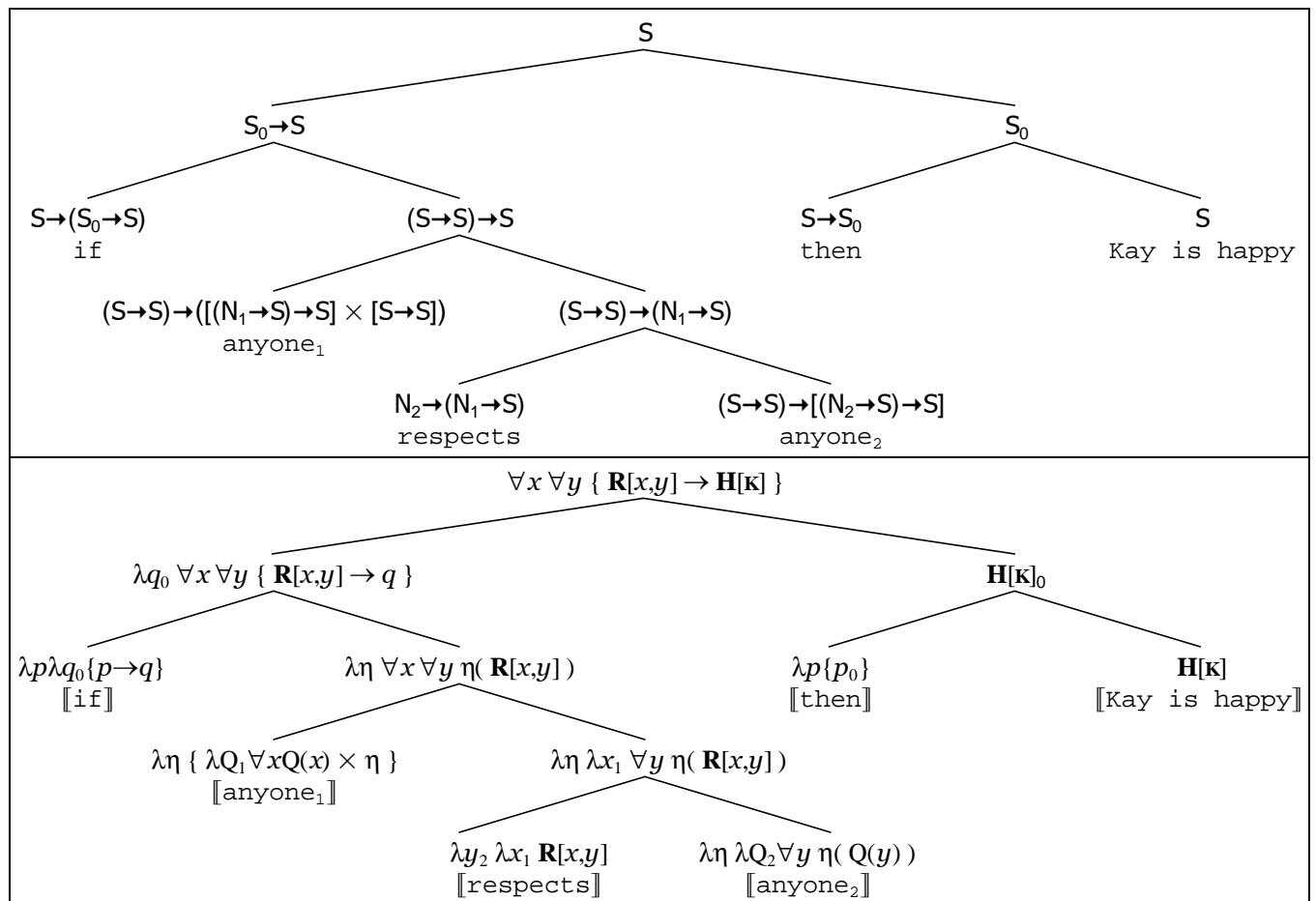
Jay did not introduce **anyone** to **anyone**



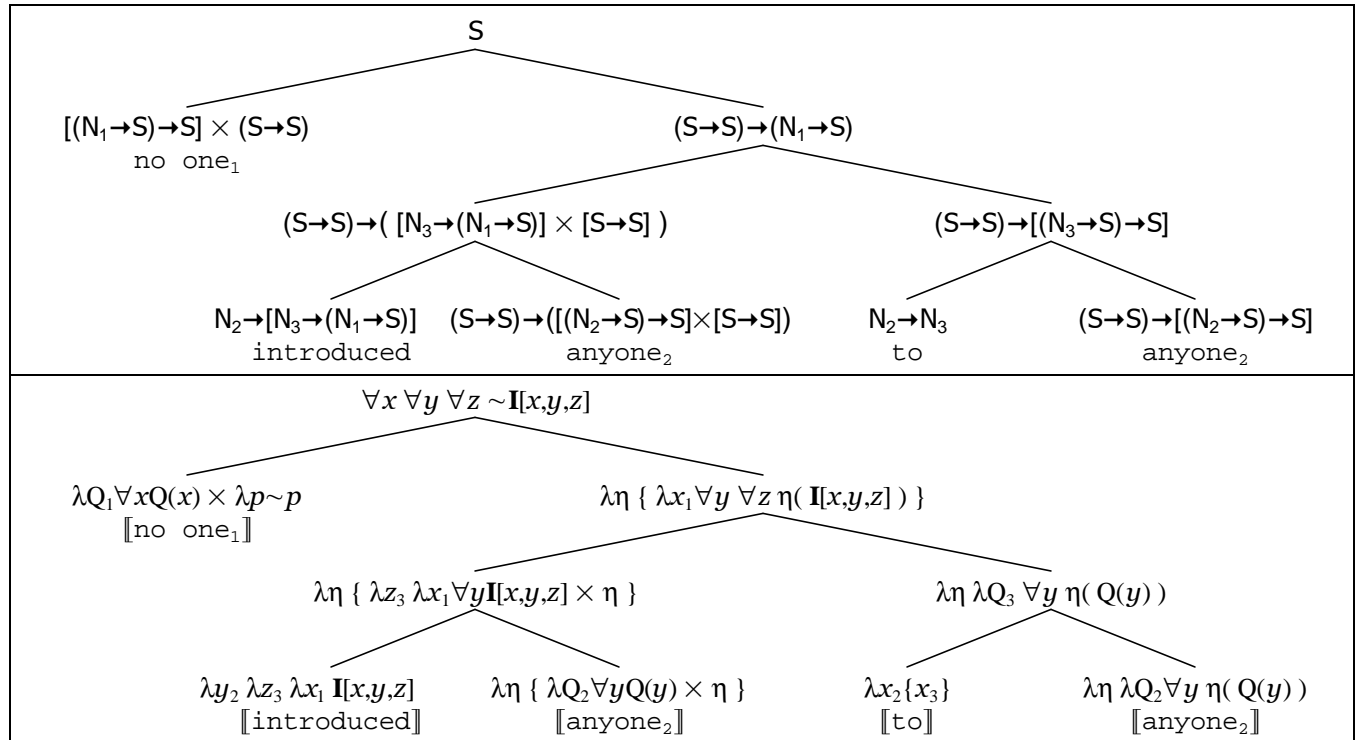


Next, we do two examples, respectively involving 'if' and 'no'.

if anyone respects anyone, then Kay is happy



no one introduced anyone to anyone



12. Dialectical and Colloquial Variants of Not-Any

We note that there are variants of the not-any construction, spoken naturally and sincerely by some people, and spoken affectively and rhetorically by others, in which 'any' is replaced by 'no' – as in the following examples.

I didn't see **nothing**
 no one saw **nothing**
 no one gave **nothing** to **nobody**

We propose that these involve a single negative S-operator, which is passed along from quantifier to quantifier (and is phonetically repeated at each step in the process) until it finds a simple clause, at which point the operator acts. In other words, these are simply phonetic variants of the corresponding "official" sentences involving 'any'.

I didn't see **anything**
 no one saw **anything**
 no one gave **anything** to **anybody**

13. Modal Uses of 'Any'

Recall that some uses of 'any' closely parallel 'every', as in the following pairs.

every number that two divides is even
any number that two divides is even

every trespasser will be prosecuted
any trespasser will be prosecuted

We propose that the reason that 'any' works in these examples is that the claims are *nommic* (*law-like*); one is a law of arithmetic; the other is a statutory law. Accordingly the affiliated S-operator is the hidden, but understood, nomic-operator.

Next, consider the following pair.

every pet is in the house
 ? **any** pet is in the house

The latter sounds strange as a pure *indicative* claim about where one's pets are *actually* located, but it gains more plausibility if we say/hear it in a more subjunctive mood – for example, if we somehow convey that we may not even have *any* pets, but are speaking hypothetically. This hypothetical/subjunctive operator then serves as the required affiliate S-operator.

The implicit subjunctive quality is more salient in the following example.

every pet is kept in the house
any pet is kept in the house

Here, the word 'kept' carries an *habitual-customary-expectational* feature. If I ask you where you *keep* your serving spoons, I am asking where I *should expect* to find them. You can *keep* your serving spoons in the top right drawer, and yet they can fail to be there on the given occasion. In any case, 'any' is felicitous in this example because of the hidden modal ('customarily') operator.

Finally, we consider the following pair, involving the temporal counterpart of 'any'.

are you *ever* vigilant?
 ? I am *ever* vigilant

The oddity of the latter depends upon repeating the original intonation. Notice, however, that a slight intonation shift makes the latter felicitous.

☺ I am *ever*-vigilant

The revised intonation shifts the original question and (infelicitous) answer, which are supposedly indicative, to a more subjunctive sounding sentence. This subjunctive operator then serves as the needed S-operator to complete 'ever'.

14. 'There' Insertion

We next turn to the topic of 'there' insertion, which is illustrated in the following example.⁵

there is a dog in the yard

We first observe that 'there' is usually paired with 'be', although other verbs are occasionally used, as in the following famous example.⁶

When out on the lawn **there arose** such a clatter,
I sprang from the bed to see what was the matter

There are indeed many verbs that combine with 'there'.⁷ We, however, concentrate on 'there be' which is far and away the most common usage.

We next observe that 'there be' is usually paired with a QP/DP; for example, in our original sentence, the QP is 'a dog'. Other quantifiers/determiners that readily combine with 'there be' include:

some, s[◦]m⁸, no, many, few, several, one, two, three, ...

as in the following examples.

there are [s[◦]m], **some, no,** dogs in the yard
many, few, several,
two, three, four, ...

there is [s[◦]m] milk in the refrigerator

On the other hand, certain quantifiers/determiners do not *readily* combine with 'there be', as illustrated in the following examples, which sound odd, or even ill-formed.⁹

? there is **every** dog in the yard
? there are **all** dogs in the yard
? there are **most** dogs in the yard
? there is **the** dog in the yard

These quantifiers/determiners are sometimes described as *definite*, while the earlier ones are correspondingly described as *indefinite*.

The definite/indefinite distinction cannot be the whole story, however. On the one hand, the following involve indefinite quantifiers, but they sound incomplete.

⁵ 'There' is also commonly used as a locative demonstrative, as in 'over there'. Some sentences we consider can be plausibly read treating 'there' in this manner, but we propose to disregard these readings, and concentrate on just the "expletive" reading.

⁶ From the poem "Twas the night before Christmas", anonymously published in the *Sentinel* (Troy, NY, 1823), later attributed to Clement Clarke Moore, still later attributed to Henry Livingston Jr.

⁷ For example, in *The Syntactic Phenomena of English*, 2nd Edition, McCawley claims (page 96) "there are a fairly large number of verbs (**some two-hundred**) that allow *There*-insertion, notwithstanding a surprisingly widespread belief among linguists that only a few verbs allow it." [my emphasis]

⁸ We propose 's[◦]m' as the spelling of unstressed 'some', which is the optionally pronounced indefinite determiner associated with plural nouns and mass nouns.

⁹ Depending on the context, there are readings of these that make sense (see Section 24).

- ? there is a dog
- ? there are cats
- ? there are many/few/several dogs
- ? there is [s^om] milk

On the other hand, the following involve a definite quantifier, but they sound ok.

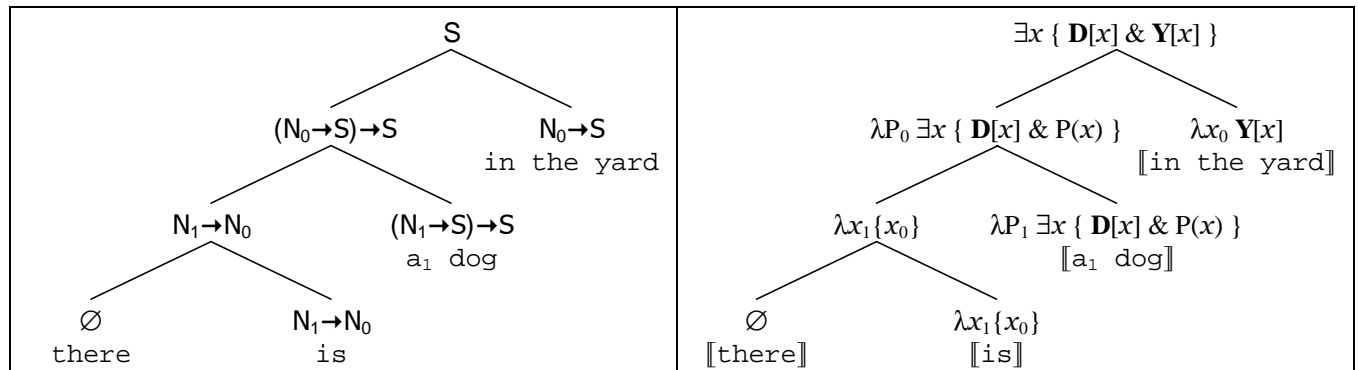
- ☺ there is on the kitchen table **every** newspaper from the past week
- ☺ there seems to be **every** kid in town at the mall today

The problem of what/when/how quantifiers/determiners properly combine with 'there be' is a vexing topic for which we offer no general solution. Rather, our more modest goal is to offer an account of what semantic information 'there' contributes to compound phrases in which it appears.

15. Proposal #1

The simplest hypothesis is that 'there' is an *expletive*, which is to say it plays a purely syntactic role,¹⁰ but basically contributes nothing semantically. The following is a plausible analysis in line with this proposal.

there is a dog in the yard



Here, we treat 'is' as copular 'be', and we treat 'in the yard' as a bare adjective,¹¹ which is sometimes called the *coda*.¹²

The following alternative analysis treats 'is' as existential 'be', and treats 'in the yard' as an ordinary adjective [i.e., CNP-modifier].

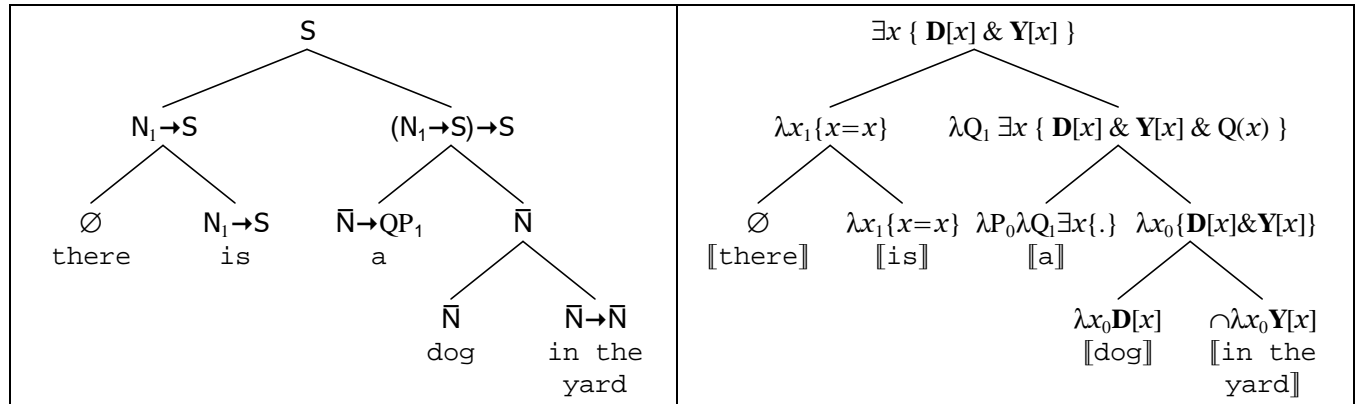
¹⁰ In particular, it behaves **a lot** like the subject of the verb. For example, it is the phrase that swaps location with the verb when a question is formed, as in

are there many dogs in the yard?

¹¹ Recall that a bare adjective is obtained by applying a modifier-adjective to a null CNP, the semantic interpretation of which is context dependent.

¹² Reference +++.

there is a dog in the yard

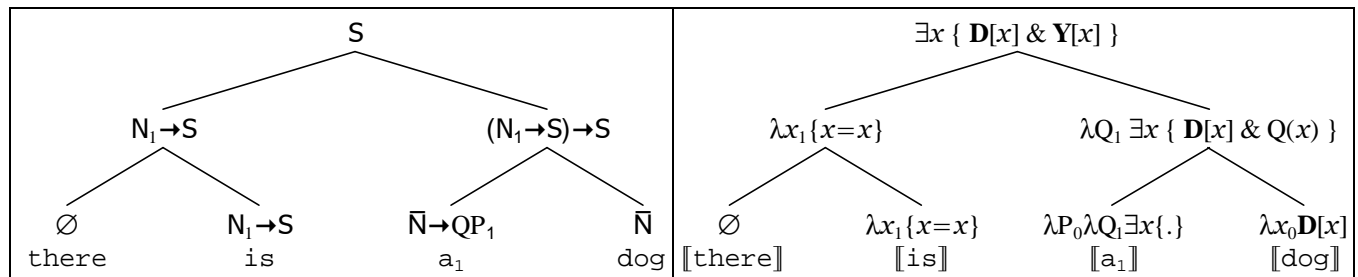


Here, we adopt the following shorthand for intersective adjectives.

$$\cap \lambda v_0 \Phi[v] \quad =_{df} \quad \lambda P_0 \lambda v_0 \{ P(v) \ \& \ \Phi[v] \}$$

The latter analysis, however, faces a problem when the coda is removed, as seen in the following example.

? there is a dog ?



This phrase is infelicitous – not in the sense of being *nonsense*, but rather in the sense of being *incomplete*. What precisely is missing is the coda. Sentences like this suggest that, unlike its usage in mathematics and logic, in ordinary English, ‘there is’ involves copular ‘be’ and not existential ‘be’.

16. Proposal #2

We propose that the coda is critical to proper ‘there’ insertion, so we propose to incorporate it into the categorial implementation of ‘there’ – as follows.

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \text{category}(\text{there}) & = & \text{Adj} \rightarrow \text{CNP} \\
 & =_{df} & (\bar{N} \rightarrow \bar{N}) \rightarrow (N_0 \rightarrow S) \\
 \llbracket \text{there} \rrbracket & = & \lambda \eta \lambda x_0 \eta^*(x)
 \end{array}$$

Here, the coda is depicted as an adjective η , whose core η^* is a characteristic function defined as follows.

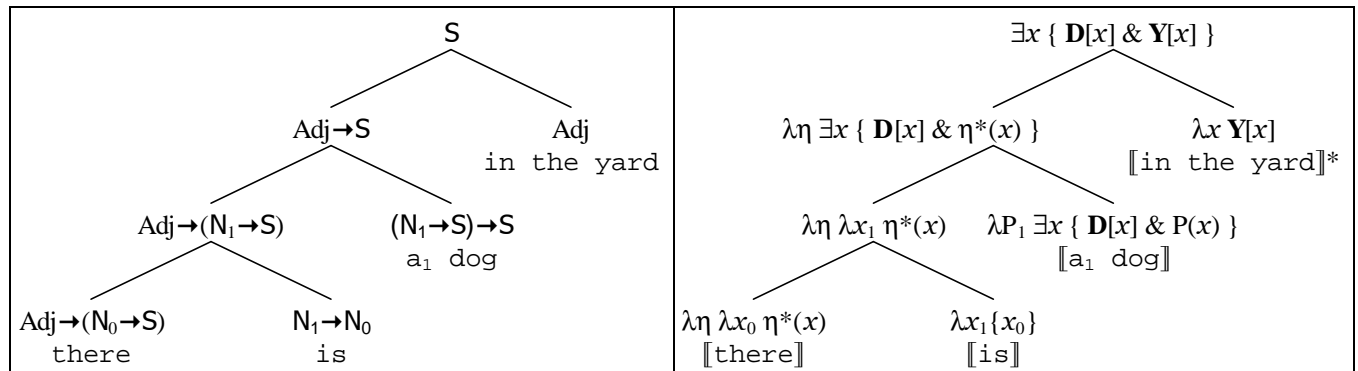
$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \eta^* & =_{df} & \lambda x \eta(I_0)(x_0) \\
 \text{where:} & & \\
 I_0 & = & \lambda x_0 \{ x=x \}
 \end{array}$$

For example:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \text{in the yard} \rrbracket &= \lambda P_0 \lambda x_0 \{ P(x) \ \& \ Y[x] \} \\ \llbracket \text{in the yard} \rrbracket^* &= \lambda x \ Y[x] \\ Y[\alpha] &=_{df} \lambda(\alpha \text{ is in the yard}) \end{aligned}$$

17. Example

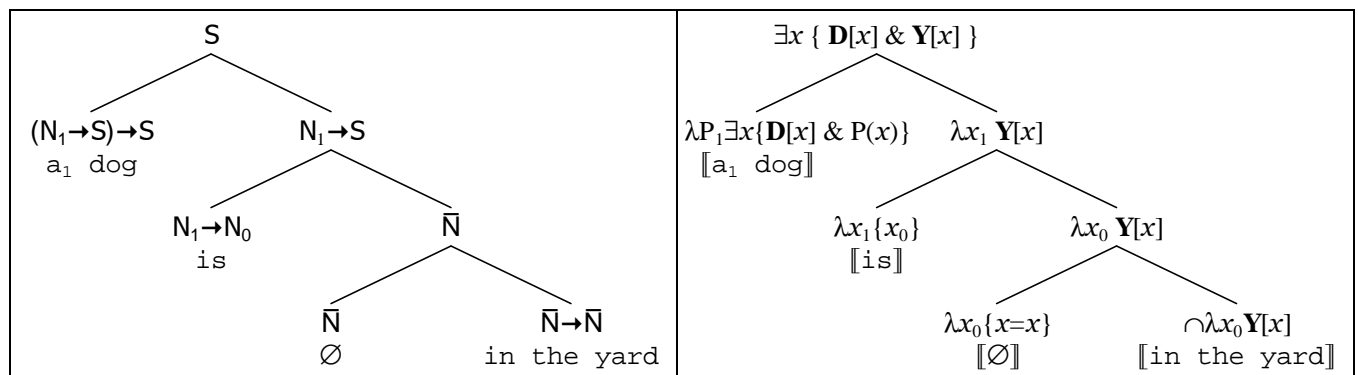
there is a dog in the yard



Note carefully our shortcut. Rather than write the denotation of the coda, we instead simply write the corresponding core, which saves space, and which is signaled by the asterisk.

It might be useful to compare this phrase with the corresponding sentence without 'there'.

a dog is in the yard



18. What is the difference?

Although the there-sentence and the subject-predicate sentence are truth-conditionally equivalent, they are different in connotation; in particular, they are different in "topic".

- (1) the subject-predicate statement is **about** a presupposed reference class (dogs), and says that one of them is in the yard.
- (2) the there-statement is **not about** a presupposed reference class (dogs), but is rather **about** the location (the yard), and says that it has a dog in it .

This difference is made more clear when we talk about objects whose existence is completely derivative – e.g., holes. The following are clearly different in connotation.

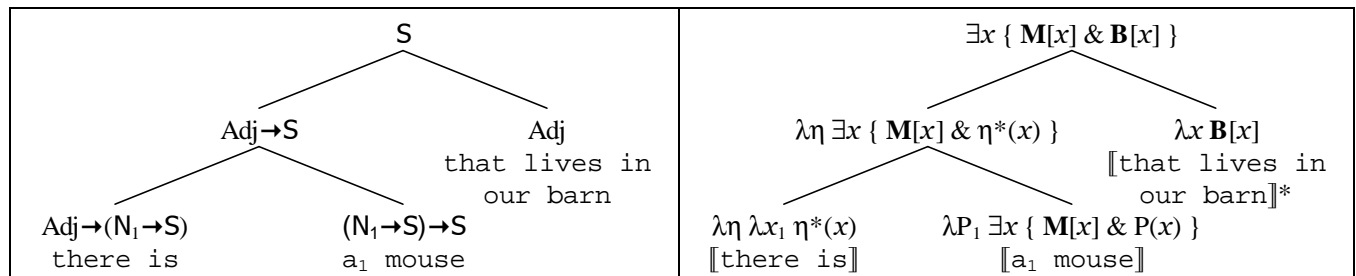
- (1) there is a hole in my pocket
 (2) a hole is in my pocket

The first one is about my pocket, and says it has a hole in it. The second one says that among a presupposed class of holes (e.g., holes in my pants, or holes I have to mend today), at least one of these is in my pocket.

19. Other Coda Forms

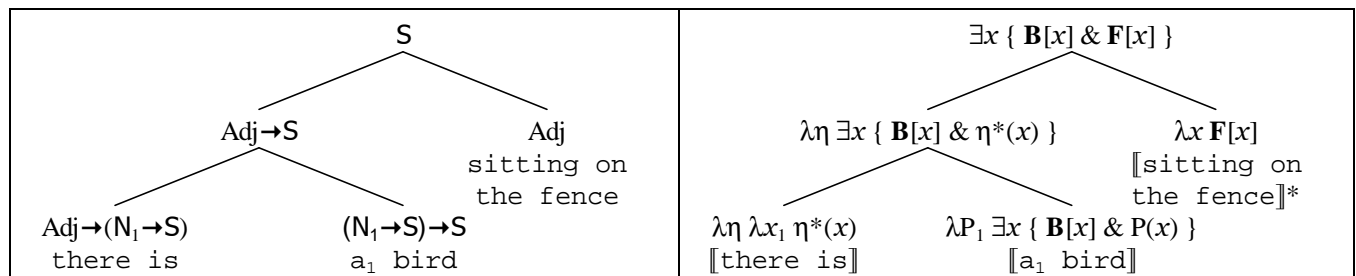
In the previous example, the coda is a locative-PP. It can also be a restrictive relative clause, as in the following example.

there is a mouse that lives in our barn



The coda can also take the following form.¹³

there is a bird sitting on the fence



Not all post-fix adjectives are equally felicitous. Consider the following odd-sounding example.

? there is a kid from our neighborhood

On the other hand, the following seems ok.

☺ there are many people from Texas

20. Pre-Fix Adjectives

Pre-fix adjectives generally don't work so well – as in

? there is a brown dog

– *unless* the adjective is focused,¹⁴ as in:

¹³ These may ultimately resolve to restrictive relative clauses, depending on how we analyze 'sitting'. If 'sitting' here is simply the imperfect form of 'sit', and 'be' is its auxiliary, then we need a covert restrictive relative clause.

- ☺ there are no *green* dogs
- ☺ there are *ordinary* squid, and there are *giant* squid

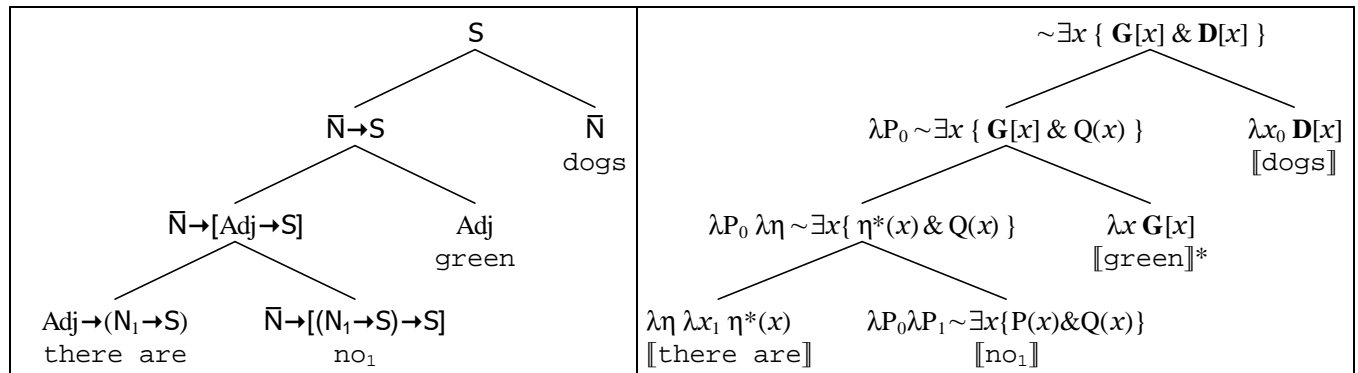
or the CNP is focused, as in

- ☺ there are no ordinary *people*, only ordinary *circumstances*

Basically, when the Adj or the CNP is focused, they are syntactically separated so 'there' can act on the adjective. If neither is focused, then the Adj+CNP remain a CNP-unit, which prevents 'there' from acting on the adjective.

The following illustrates the grammar of a focused adjective.

there are no *green* dogs

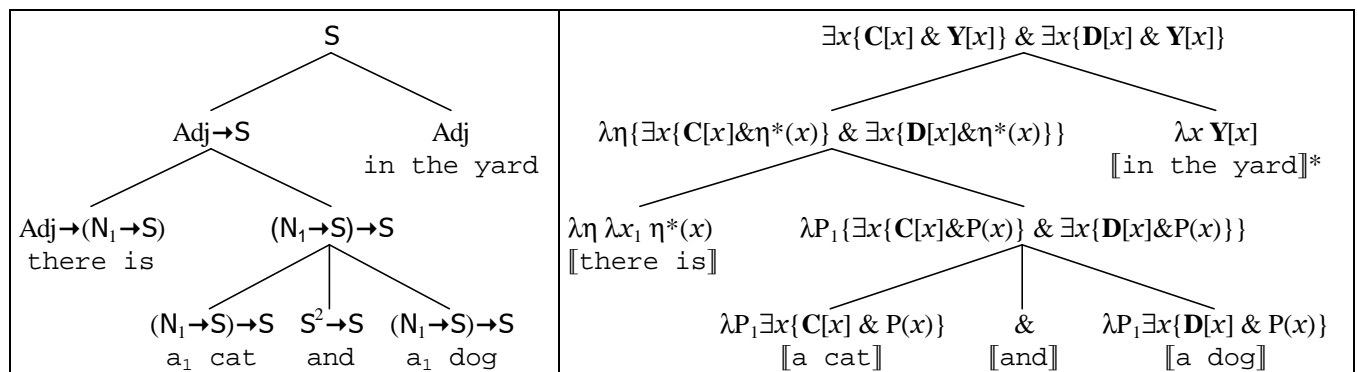


Notice that 'green and 'dogs' are grammatically separated.

21. Conjunctions

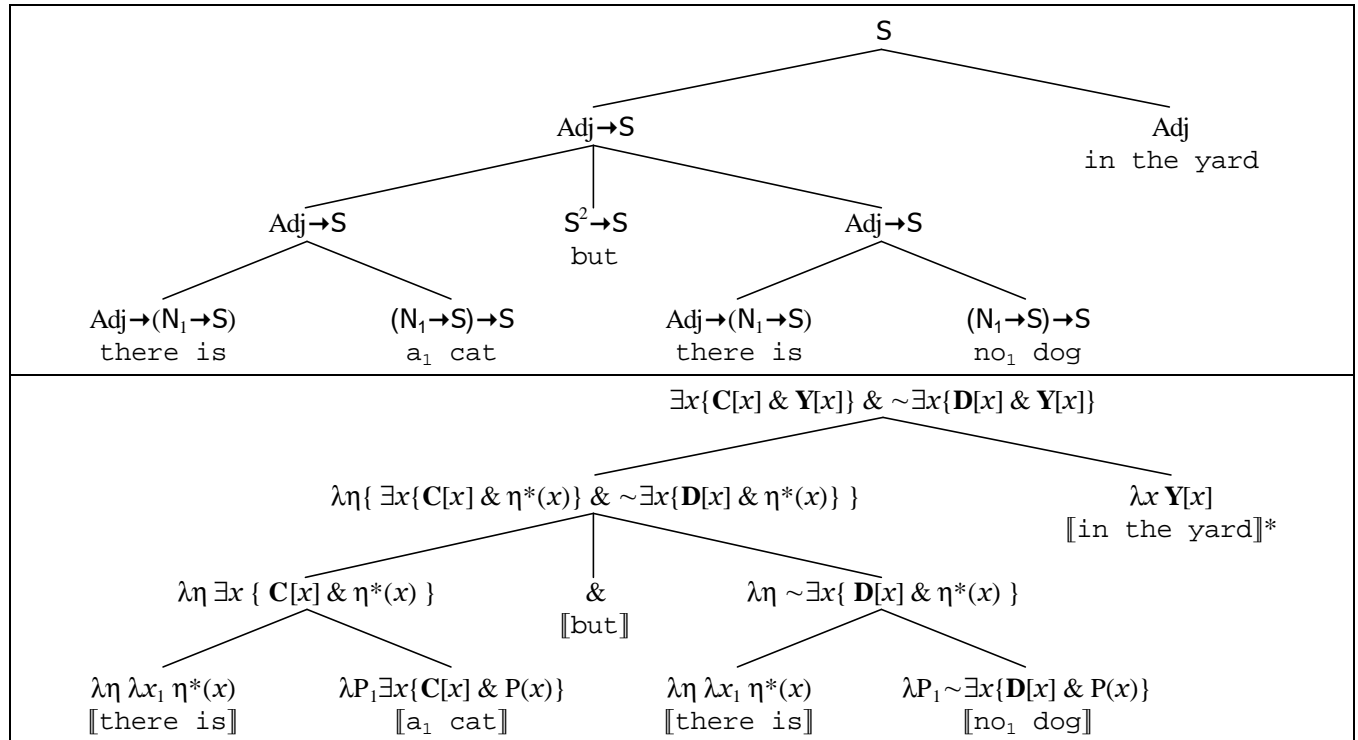
The following illustrate coordinate conjunction.

there is a cat **and** a dog in the yard

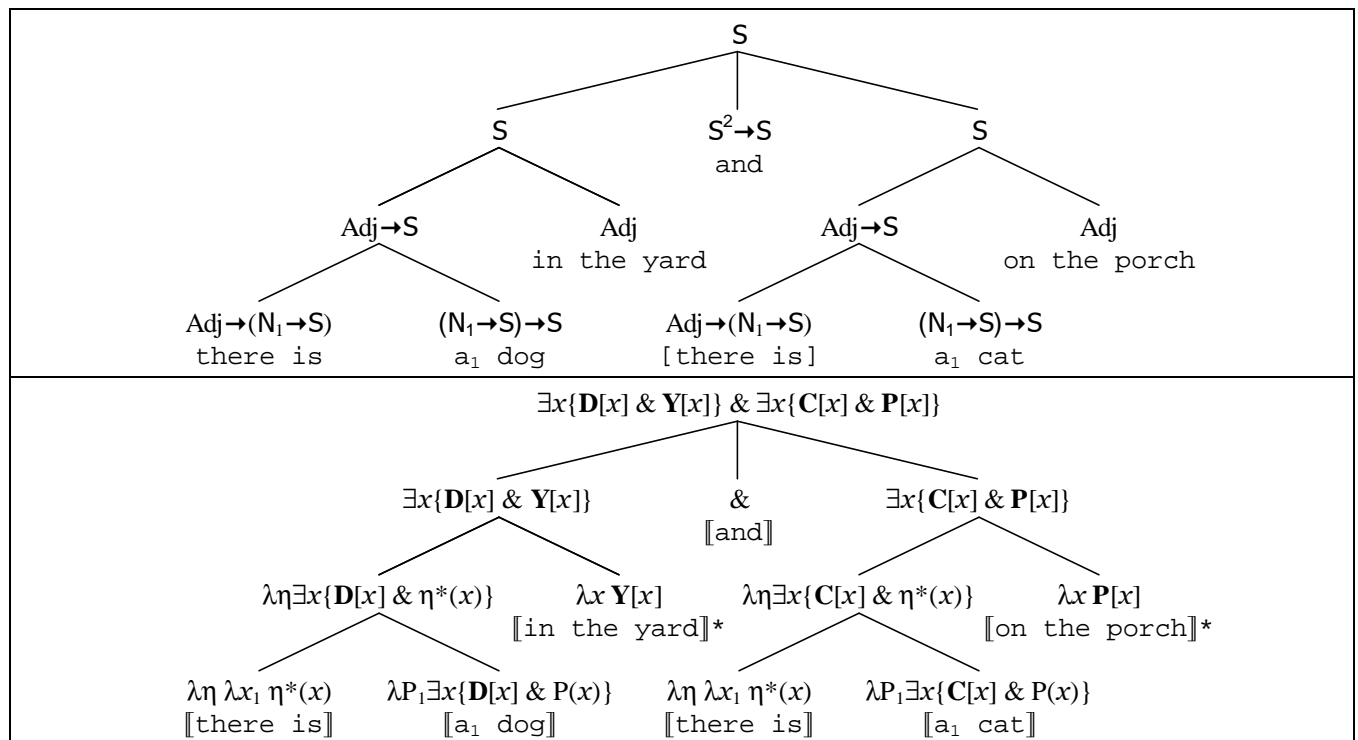


¹⁴ Topic-focus distinguishes the presupposed reference class (topic) from the new information (focus). Some languages mark these explicitly. English primarily uses stress to mark focus, although it also uses cleft constructions to mark topic, as in
 it was the knave of hearts who stole the tarts
 it was the tarts that the knave of hearts stole

there is a cat, **but** there is no dog, in the yard



there is a dog in the yard **and** [there is] a cat on the porch



This sentence can also be analyzed so that 'a dog in the yard' conjoins with 'a cat on the porch', but the computations are considerably more complex.

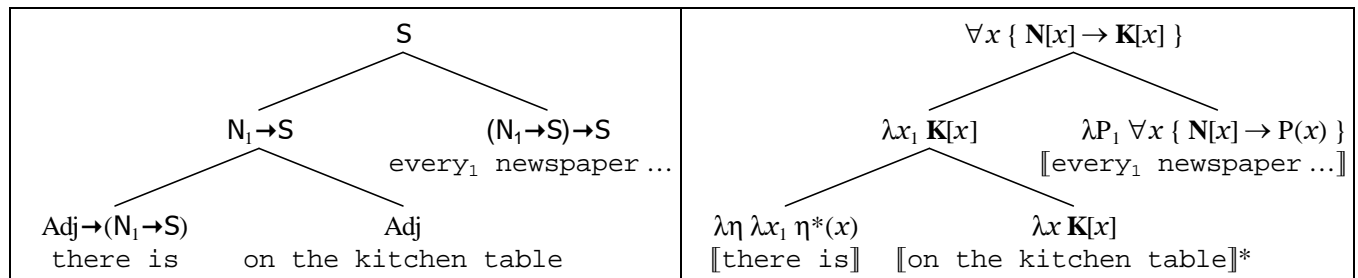
22. Examples with 'every'

The received opinion seems to be that 'there' does not combine with definite determiners, such as 'every', 'most', and 'the'. In point of fact, they do combine, although their distribution is severely limited by factors I don't entirely understand. For example the following seem to be well-formed.

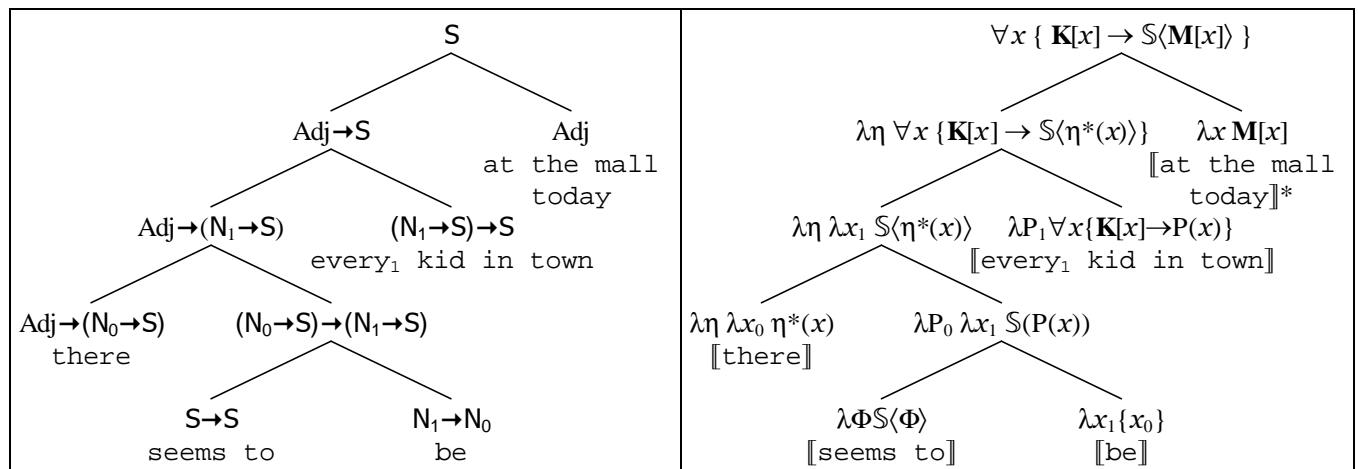
- (1) there is on the kitchen table **every** newspaper we received this week;
- (2) there seems to be **every** kid in town at the mall today;
- (3) there is in our organization **every** person you would expect;
- (4) as the year stretched on, there came to pass **every** calamity that the Prophet predicted;
- (5) there suddenly appeared before us **the** entire Russian army;
- (6) there are still living in this town **most** of the original families.

By way of illustration, we provide the overall grammatical analyses of (1) and (2).

there is on the kitchen table **every** newspaper from the past week



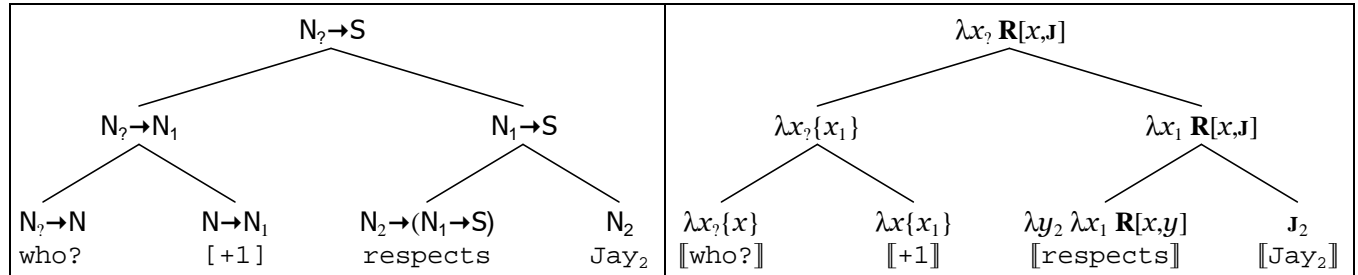
there seems to be **every** kid in town at the mall today



23. Wh-Questions containing 'there be'

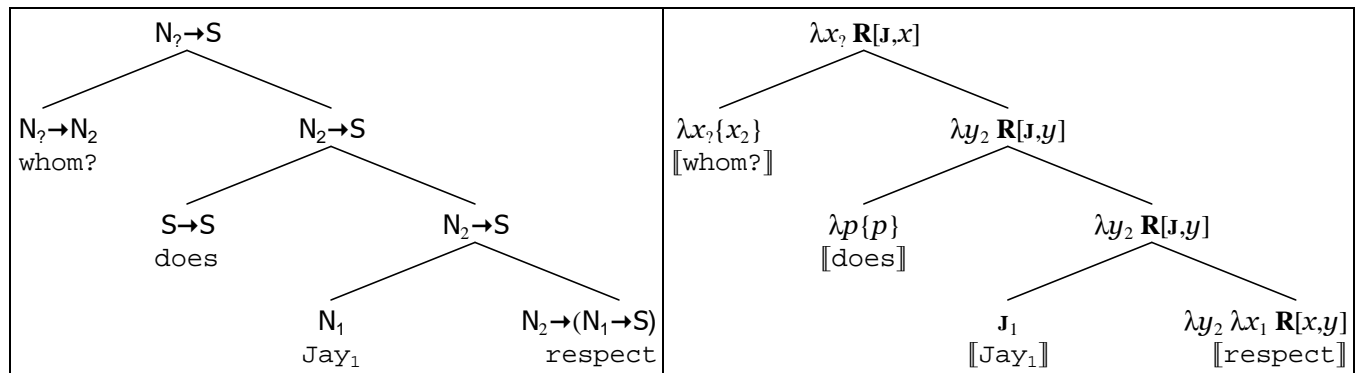
We have not officially discussed questions, so the following is a bit sketchy. Briefly, we propose that categorially-speaking a wh-question is an open [fill-in-the-blank] sentence, of type $K_7 \rightarrow S$, where K is the relevant category of the fill-in-the-blank answer. For example, a who-question has category $N_7 \rightarrow S$.¹⁵ The following is a simple example.

who respects Jay?



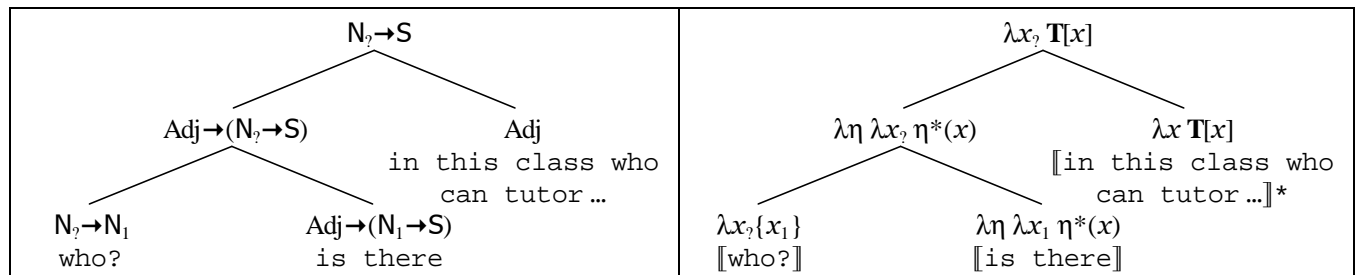
The following is a bit more complicated, since it involves auxiliary 'do' insertion.

whom does Jay respect?



The following is quite a bit more complicated, since it involves 'there' insertion, as well as 'there be' inversion.

who **is there** in this class who can tutor intro students?



¹⁵ Although we officially write the type of wh-questions as $N_7 \rightarrow S$, admissible answers include phrases like 'everyone' and 'no one', which of course are QPs. But QPs are in effect included, since the type $N_7 \rightarrow S$ logically-entails the type $QP_7 \rightarrow S$ ($=_{df} [(N_7 \rightarrow S) \rightarrow S] \rightarrow S$).

24. Answers To Wh-Questions containing 'there be'

In answering the question

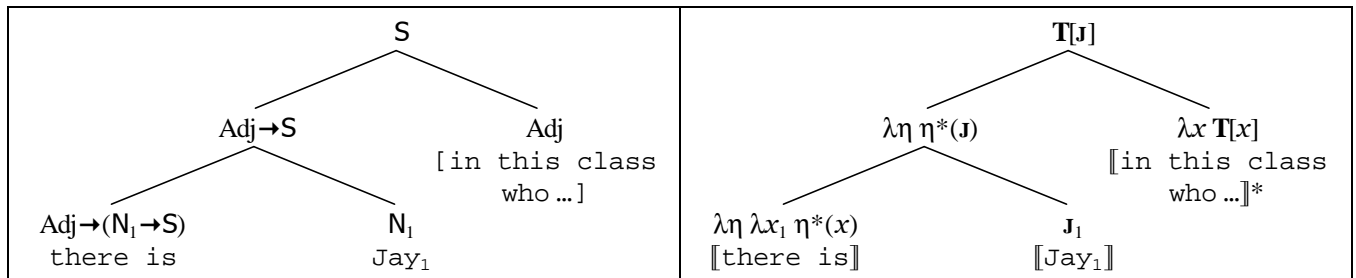
who **is there** in this class who can tutor intro students?

the following sentences, which involve definite determiner phrases,¹⁶ seem perfectly acceptable.¹⁷

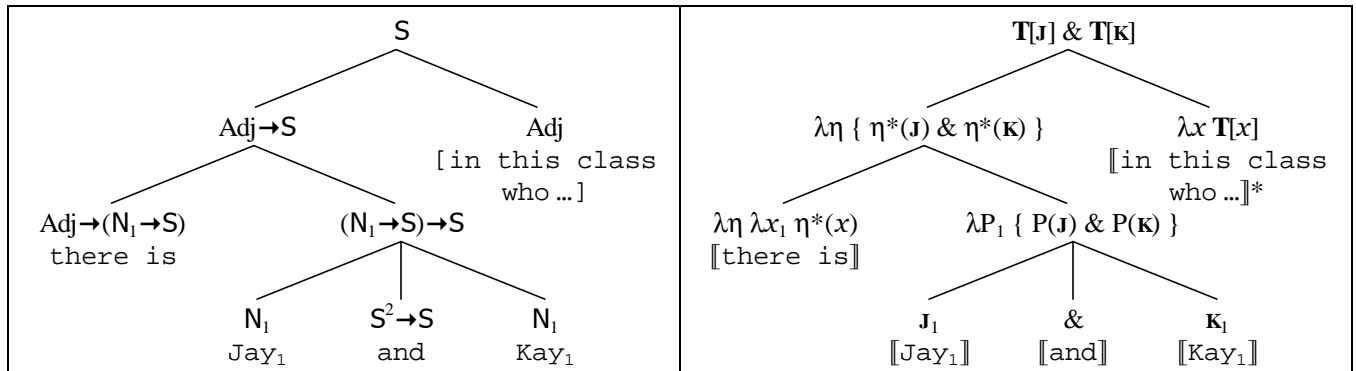
- (1) there's Jay [in this class who ...]
- (2) there's Jay and Kay [in this class who ...]
- (3) there's every A-student [in this class who ...]

The following are the corresponding grammatical analyses.

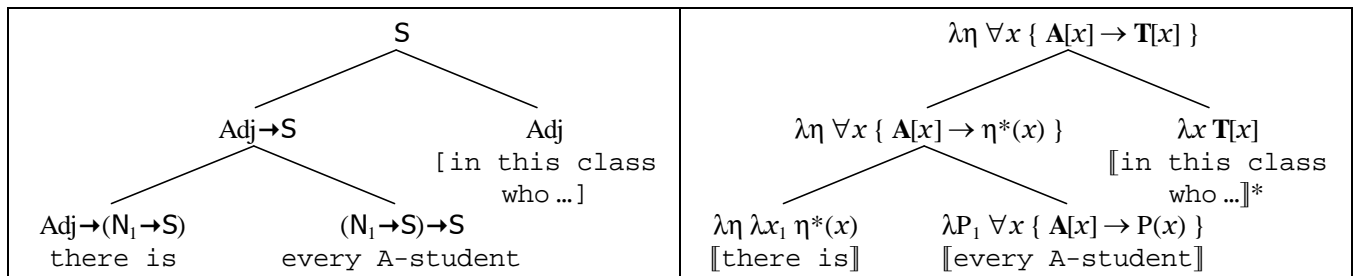
there's Jay [in this class who ...]



there's Jay and Kay [in this class who ...]



there's every A-student [in this class who ...]



¹⁶ In this context, proper nouns count as a definite determiner phrases.

¹⁷ The "list" use of 'there'; reference + + +.